WILBUR S. JACKMAN

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WILBUR S. JACKMAN

ORVILLE T. BRIGHT
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Rarely has the educational world been so startled as on Monday morning, January 28, when without warning of any kind came the news that Wilbur S. Jackman was dead. He had been actively engaged in his work during the preceding week, and on Saturday evening was at a social gathering with the students of the School of Education until late in the evening. He seemed to rest well Saturday night, but early Sunday morning symptoms of the dread disease, pneumonia, began to show themselves, although it was late in the afternoon before his physician realized the serious condition Mr. Jackman was in. Even on Monday morning Mrs. Jackman could not believe there was any serious danger, but at eight o'clock, almost without warning and without struggle, his life slipped away. A private funeral service was held on Tuesday afternoon at the home, and a public memorial service, on Wednesday morning in Mandel Hall, which was crowded to the utmost with members of the faculty and students. The body was taken to his boyhood home in Pennsylvania for burial. I have heard him wish that he might die "in the harness," and this wish was literally fulfilled.

Wilbur Samuel Jackman was born at Mechanicstown, O., January 12, 1855. When he was four or five years of age his father returned to his own boyhood home on the ancestral farm two and one-half miles from California, Pa. This farm Wilbur's

grandfather had bought from the Indians, giving in payment a copper kettle, and it has been the family home for more than a hundred years. Wilbur's boyhood was spent on this farm, doing such work as offers for every farmer's boy, and attending the country school on the hill near by. It was while attending this country school, and while engaged in work on the farm, that he developed that passionate love for plants and animals which characterized his whole life. As soon as he was old enough, he attended the normal school at California, riding a horse to and from the school every day, and doing much of his studying on horseback. He was graduated from the normal school at about twenty years of age, and afterward taught there one year. It must be understood that all of the larger boys and girls from the country round about attended this school, and were the neighbors and friends of young Jackman. This familiar acquaintance led to some exciting experiences with the boys, and the first few weeks of his teaching were not altogether peaceful ones, but his great strength of character, backed up by physical strength just as remarkable, together with never-failing patience and common-sense, made him master of the situation, and his first students have been his lifelong friends.

After this year's experience, Mr. Jackman went to Meadville College for three years, and then to Harvard for two years, being graduated in 1884 in the general course. On his way home after graduation he stopped at Pittsburg at the time that Superintendent Luckey had charge of the schools, and before leaving the city had engaged to teach natural science in the high school. He remained in the position for five years, and during that time had worked out a plan for nature-study in the elementary schools. Here Colonel Parker found him in 1889.

While he was in the high school at Pittsburg, it was the custom of the principal to place thirty or forty young people in charge of each teacher for such personal services as could be rendered from the friendship standpoint. Mr. Jackman asked that the group assigned to him might remain with him for the entire four years. The result was remarkable in the strength of character developed among the students through this personal

association. As men and women, these students refer to it today as the strongest and best influence of their lives. I have read some of the letters written by these men and women to Mrs. Jackman since Mr. Jackman's death. The heartfelt acknowledgments of their great debt of gratitude to their old teacher were most affecting, and this gratitude seems only to have strengthened with the years that have passed. They seem to realize fully that it was the wonderful character of the man, more even than what he taught, that had so powerfully influenced their lives. We are glad indeed that Mr. Jackman himself knew of this sentiment of his old pupils.

Mr. Jackman came to Chicago in the fall of 1889. Never shall I forget the elation with which Colonel Parker introduced Mr. Jackman and Dr. Giffin to the first gathering of parents at the school that fall. For years he had been in search of a teacher of natural science who could bring these subjects into rational touch with young lives. As soon as he saw Mr. Jackman at work at Pittsburg, he determined to have him at the Cook County Normal School. That he made no mistake in this selection I need not say to any teacher or pupil who was in the normal school from that time on.

As everybody knows who remembers the Cook County Normal School, the support of the school was very precarious, and its equipment wretchedly inadequate; but Mr. Jackman went at his work with remarkable enthusiasm and courage. No obstacles could daunt him. He took entire charge of the science, including chemistry, and within the next five years had, somehow or other, got into the school a very adequate apparatus, all of which could be, and was, constantly in use. His classes in elementary science, especially in nature-study, were wonderfully successful, and became celebrated throughout the country.

As a teacher, Mr. Jackman was an enthusiast, but a very quiet one. There was no bluster about anything that he ever did. He was a genuine inspiration to his classes, always insisting upon close attention and earnestness on the part of pupils; but at the same time he brought into his work so much of the charm of his personality and the rare sweetness of his dispo-

sition as to make these recitation periods the best of the day to all concerned in them. Every one of Mr. Jackman's recitations was a model of its kind. His preparation was ample, and every lesson showed the result of fresh study and thought. Many, many times have I enjoyed his classwork, and never have I seen any but clean-cut and effective teaching. His students were responsive—they could not be otherwise. Brightness and effectiveness were the rule of the hour, and this was always so.

Mr. Jackman was a thorough student, but not for the sake of hoarding knowledge. Aside from his love for study, there was always with him the hope that the knowledge acquired might be of service to his pupils. I have never known a teacher, unless it was Colonel Parker himself, who seemed so completely to fill a recitation, and yet to bring out the best results possible from every student present, and make every student feel himself to be a useful factor in the recitation through what he contributed to it. It seems to me that this is great teaching, and I believe that hundreds and thousands of Mr. Jackman's students would subscribe to the same sentiment.

When Colonel Parker resigned his position at the Chicago Normal School to organize and take charge of the Institute of Education founded by Mrs. Emmons Blaine, Mr. Jackman, as well as several other members of the faculty, went with him. The north side school could not begin operations for a year, and through the generosity of Mrs. Blaine several members of the faculty, including Mr. Jackman, were sent abroad for one year's study and travel. Later on this school was merged with the University of Chicago. For about a year and a half before his death, Colonel Parker was at the head of the School of Education, as it was afterward called at the university. The work was carried on in the temporary building provided for that purpose, pending the completion of the present beautiful building on the Midway. Two and one-half years ago Mr. Jackman was appointed dean of the School of Education, and took complete charge of the elementary school. His work was arduous and sometimes seemed almost beyond his strength, but from the time that he took the helm the school prospered beyond any previous

record. President Harper expressed the greatest pleasure in the success of Mr. Jackman's work. This success became more marked each year until the school was crowded to the limit. During the present year from seventy-five to one hundred have been on the waiting-list all the time. As may be imagined, Mr. Jackman felt greatly elated over this success, and his plans and hopes for the future seemed almost boundless. He said recently: "If I can have just five years, I will show what this school can become."

Mr. Jackman was prodigal of his strength. He was a strong man, but the pace was too fast. He seemed never to rest. The School of Education was quite enough, but he edited the *Elementary School Teacher,* besides responding to constant calls for educational addresses and other literary work for the cause at large. He was a forcible and convincing speaker and writer. It is doubtful whether any other man in the country has done so much for the cause of rational nature-study and elementary science as Wilbur S. Jackman. He was also intensely interested in all sorts of hand-work available for elementary schools. The School of Education is more noted for these two lines of work than for any other, but only because it is so uncommon to find them effectively carried out. These two departments of education can ill afford the loss of so devoted and enthusiastic an advocate as Mr. Jackman. But the work he has done in them and for them will go on because he did this work so well.

Mr. Jackman believed in Colonel Parker heart and soul—rarely have I known a man to love and honor another so much. He generously acknowledged the great influence of Colonel Parker over his own aims and attitude toward educational work. To my mind the strongest proof of the correctness of Colonel Parker's educational principles was Wilbur S. Jackman himself, who studied and worked in them eighteen years, and never faltered in his faith.

It was my rare good fortune to know Mr. Jackman intimately during all the years he lived in Chicago, and to feel the full grasp of his friendship; and never a cloud has cast a shadow over this friendship. He never left a doubt in the minds of those

whom he loved and trusted and honored. One can have very few such friends, because men of his pattern are not plentiful. He was a great teacher, but more than that—he was a noble, generous, loving man. His character was rugged and at need inflexible, but he was gentle as a woman and as full of fun as a boy. Perhaps his early Quaker training had to do with the wonderful evenness and sweetness of his disposition, his grandfather having been a Quaker preacher; but there was never a suggestion of weakness in this disposition. His decisions were remarkable for their quickness and correctness. It goes without saying that he was a great favorite with the faculty of the university, and that he was greatly beloved by all of the students in the School of Education.

And we who knew him best, how we loved him! His friendship was so sure and so beautiful. Of the old Cook County Normal School coterie, those who stood by in its trials and rejoiced in its triumphs, Colonel Parker, Albert Lane, and Wilbur S. Jackman have passed on. What a wonderful record they have left of all that is noblest and best in this world! Compared with such lives, how paltry and pitiful seems the mere scramble for dollars! Each of these men has gone just at the height of his usefulness, and when it seemed that he could not possibly be spared. Together with the death of President Harper in the prime of his manhood, does it not all give us pause for thought? We must wonder if it would have made a difference if they could have found time for rest and for play—if they could have known how to rest and to play.

But their lives and their work were noble and grand and beautiful. Perhaps they will seem only the more so that they were cut short in the full strength of manhood.

WILBUR SAMUEL JACKMAN[1]

A PERSONAL APPRECIATION

NATHANIEL BUTLER

Nineteen years ago the late Colonel Francis W. Parker, then at the head of the Cook County Normal School, was commissioned by the county board to go to Pittsburg to look up a man then teaching in the high school of that city, and make recommendation as to his appointment to take charge of the department of natural sciences in the Normal School. Colonel Parker made the journey, and, returning, called upon Dr. H. H. Belfield, a member of the board. "What success did you have?" asked Mr. Belfield. "Well," said Colonel Parker, "I am in rather an embarrassing situation, and I want you to help me out. I've engaged the man for five hundred dollars more than the board authorized." "We'll have to approve it, I guess," was the reply. Thus it happened that in 1889 Wilbur Samuel Jackman came to Chicago, to be associated with Colonel Parker. That association was continued in the Chicago Institute, founded by Mrs. Emmons Blaine, and still further in the School of Education of the University of Chicago. During this period of two decades Mr. Jackman has been an influential leader in education, well known in the National Association as a creative thinker and worker. To him more than to anyone else is due the position of nature-study in the elementary schools. His views, expressed in public meetings and in his editorials in the *Elementary School Teacher*, always uttered fresh, and often wholly novel, ideas in education. He thought vigorously and for himself, and he certainly must be counted among those who have left a permanent impression for good upon American education.

Mr. Jackman's death occurred most unexpectedly on Monday morning, January 28. He had been suffering from a slight cold

[1] Read at the memorial service held in the Leon Mandel Assembly Hall, University of Chicago, January 30, 1907.

for a few days, but was able to be at his office all of the preceding week. On Saturday he attended an important meeting of the University Senate, and at noon lunched with some of his colleagues. In the evening he attended a social gathering at the School of Education. By three o'clock on Sunday somewhat alarming symptoms developed, but there was really no apprehension in the mind of anyone save his physician. Indeed, less than ten minutes before his death, Mr. Jackman in response to an inquiry of the doctor replied that he felt comfortable except for a slight inconvenience in breathing. Almost immediately a collapse followed, and he passed away without suffering.

Perhaps the first impression of which one is aware in our thought of him now is that of the difficulty in believing that he is no longer among us. This, I think, is due to the extreme suddenness of his death; to the fact that he was so vitally a part of whatever concerned him. He was a whole-hearted man, and his whole intellect and heart were fully enlisted in the thing he did. He was an embodiment of energy—mental, emotional, physical. His colleagues and his subordinates looked to him and relied upon him, so that he became an essential part of the activities in which he was associated with others, and in those activities he is still distinctly felt at the very moment in which he is so sadly missed.

No less distinct is the impression of the lovableness of the man. Affection plays a large part in our recollection. In the two years that I have known him intimately, he has not spoken one word to me, nor, so far as I know, to any of his colleagues, that can occasion regret. There were sharp differences of opinion, and even heated discussion. But differences of opinion never, with him, meant discord between friends. When the discussion was over, the friend, the frank, sincere, manly man, was there as before. And this impression of mine, resulting from my two short years of intimacy, is confirmed by the repeated testimony of others who have known him ten times as long. Faculty relations are a great test of a man's qualities. His colleagues knew him thoroughly, and they admired and trusted, often opposed and withstood, and always loved him. He thought clearly and

positively, but he was always kind and courteous and cheerful. And in the relaxation of home and social life he was a charming companion, and in the most intimate association with his fellow-officers and his acquaintances these qualities were always in evidence.

Mr. Jackman was a peculiar compound of the autocrat and the democrat. By temperament he was a ruler. This was not so much a matter of vanity and self-will in the ordinary sense; it was, rather, a psychological necessity. He was ever at work upon a problem, and, when he saw its solution, all about him, as it seemed to him, must co-operate for its application. By creed, however, he was a democrat. He distinctly believed that others should enjoy all the rights and privileges that he claimed for himself. And he strove to bring his temperament into subordination to his creed. In this he succeeded, so that he grew ever more and more sympathetic and tolerant. Repeatedly he would protest against any legislation that would abridge the entire freedom of every teacher to work out his own results. For himself, in his work and friendships, he was a devoted, sincere man. Reasonable and sane, a seeker for truth, and a lover of beauty, he had in him both the scientist and the poet. His humor was a delight to his friends, and must have brightened for him many a hard experience. As was true of President Harper and of Colonel Parker, and of all large, free, kindly natures, he never outgrew the boy, and loved play and the outdoor world.

One would not quite say that his religion was the religion of work. Religion is certainly a far profounder thing than work. But work may properly be said to have been a vital part of his religion. These memorable words of Lowell may fitly be recalled as we think of Mr. Jackman:

> The longer on this earth we live
> And weigh the various qualities of men,
> The more we feel the high, stern-featured beauty
> Of plain devotedness to duty.
> Steadfast and still, nor paid with mortal praise,
> But finding amplest recompense
> For life's ungarlanded expense
> In work done squarely and unwasted days.

Of the deeper aspects of his religion let his own words speak, quoted from a recent editorial:

> The ideal of every religion has at some time found its incarnation in a living character. . . . . Everyone acknowledges the tremendous educational effect produced by the study of a fine character. Our schools need now, and they always will need, the all-compelling influence of the life of Jesus. As the meridian sun seizes upon the seed lying in the darkened earth, and forces the expansion of leaf and flower and the ripening of the fruit, just so his teachings, as set forth in the Sermon on the Mount and in the parables, when learned and applied in the affairs of everyday life, must develop an irresistible spiritual control in the direction of righteousness.

Mr. Jackman's last active days were probably as happy as any that he ever spent. Saturday began with important discussion affecting the organization of the school. The subject had been one of considerable perplexity and anxiety, but on Saturday evening he expressed himself as well satisfied that the right thing would be done, and that good and wise counsels would prevail. So closed a day begun in university work; at midday, a luncheon with friends and visitors; in the evening, a social gathering of teachers and students. A happy Sunday at home followed, and as Monday dawned he passed peacefully away. Who would not, for himself, pray for an end like this? And yet not an end. Who can doubt that noble activities await him and all such as he, being

> One who never turned his back but marched breast forward,
> Never doubted clouds would break,
> Never dreamed, though right were worsted, wrong would triumph,
> Held we fall to rise, are baffled to fight better,
> Sleep to wake.
>
> No, at noonday in the bustle of man's worktime
> Greet the unseen with a cheer!
> Bid him forward, breast and back as either should be,
> "Strive and thrive!" cry "Speed,—fight on, fare ever
> There as here!"

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF MR. JACKMAN'S WORK[1]

JAMES H. TUFTS

It is at once a limitation and a source of strength, growing out of our common life, that no work and no personality can be judged in itself. We can estimate it rightly only as we see it in its relations to the larger human society, or the movement of human life in which it is placed. This is particularly true of the work and personality of the teacher. The teacher brings to the child or the riper student some part of the thought and life of society as it now is. In this he is therefore dependent for his resources upon the knowledge and culture of his time. But in what he selects and in his adaptation of this to the possible development of the child lies his opportunity to be in turn a contributor. If he can not merely apprehend the mass of material which civilization is constantly gathering and casting aside, but can also discern the movement, the direction, of the process; if he can sense, however imperfectly, what knowledge is of most worth; if he can glimpse what way progress lies; most important of all, if, amid the rival clamors of the liberal and the practical, of sciences and arts, of classicists and realists, he can remember that all these are for the child, and not the child for them, he has an opportunity to be of real service in the larger movement of humanity. However small his individual part may be, it gets permanence and worth as it becomes incorporate in the common life.

Mr. Jackman was connected with three great movements of education. The first claimed his activity when a teacher of science in Pittsburg—the movement to introduce the teaching of the newest science, already established in schools and colleges, into the secondary schools. To the second movement his work at the Cook County Normal School was an important contribution—

[1] Read at the memorial service held in the Leon Mandel Assembly Hall, University of Chicago, January 30, 1907.

the movement which included the study of nature as one of the agencies through which the school life was made to center its emphasis upon a free and full development of the child. The third movement is that for the bringing into mutual relation the work of the university with that of the training of teachers. Mr. Jackman had much to do with bringing about the union of the School of Education with the University of Chicago. This work, however, is still in its beginnings. It is to the work of the second period of his life that we naturally look at this moment, as it is the most conspicuous.

The introduction of nature-study into elementary schools had two aspects. It was, in the first place, a bringing of new material into a very meager and formal course of study. To anyone who has watched the active mind of a child the theory seems almost incredible that eight years, five days in the week, and five hours a day, were necessary to enable the child to deal with symbols of language and symbols of number, with perhaps a little geography and history that were necessarily almost as purely symbolic. To give the child some conception of the world in which he lived, of the material which has so enlarged and enriched all our modern views, was then in itself a sufficient reason for the introduction of the new study.

But this soon came to be only one phase of a larger movement. The average parent, as Mr. Jackman remarked in a recent editorial in the *Elementary School Teacher,* is too apt to think of his child's education as merely a process of fitting the child for something else—for college on the one hand, or for business on the other. There is undoubtedly a sense in which it is true that the life of the child is a preparation for the life of man or woman, but those who have lived with children feel that in another and very profound sense, if there is any part of human experience which pays as it goes—which is not a means to something else but is itself valuable and priceless—it is the life of the child. The biologists have recognized that it is an advantage for the evolutionary process that heredity is not too rigid. It is in the accidental variations, whether minute or large, that the opportunity for progress lies. Our educators have been slow to recog-

nize that the same holds good in the field of social heredity and social progress. To impose upon the child all the learning and traditions of society in science, in art, in morals, in religion, is to leave too little room for the variaton of the child's own free spontaneity to assert itself; and it is in the happy variation that may be found in this child or in that child that the hope of human progress lies, as surely as it lies also in the painful and laborious conquests of the gradual advance of organized thought and purpose. When this began to be more fully appreciated and realized, the significance of studies in the curriculum took on a new interpretation. The study of nature came at once to have a prominent place, not merely because a knowledge of nature might be useful as a means to something else, but also because it was seen to be indispensable as a part of the necessary environment in which the child could live.

Mr. Jackman succeeded in his task because of three things. In the first place, he had a great love of nature and much ingenuity in finding ways to bring this home to children. In the second place, he loved boys and girls. These two facts made his work at Pittsburg so successful that Colonel Parker thought him the man for the new work to be done. In the third place, he had a large conception of the value of the study of nature. It meant, first of all, giving the child new material and imagery with which the mind might grow. Our schools, he said, squeezed the life out of children. They take them, eager, full of questions, they give them only symbols and abstract, formal methods; they starve the minds and leave them poorer than when they came. The great variety which sky and earth, plant and animal, natural processes of change and movement afford, gives rich imagery and material, and suggests an expression in turn through a great variety of means. But, again, knowledge of nature means freedom from superstition. Our physical life is endangered, our mental horizon is limited, by ignorance of the world in which we live. The child has a right to be freed from these dangers and limitations. And, finally, the study of nature was by Mr. Jackman considered to be a means through which the child might come into actual, real, and moral relations with his universe; to

obey the laws of nature through which we gain strength and power, to control the forces of nature and thus become master in some measure of our world, to recognize at once our limitations and our relations to the whole is of positive moral, as well as intellectual, value. It prepares one in some sense for the more effective relationship to human society through which we become efficient agents in its progress.

To one who, with Lessing, conceives all human progress from its rudimentary and barbarous beginnings up through its successive struggles and achievements as an "education of the human race" the work of the teacher has dignity and worth. When one has passed from the ranks his colleagues pay to the sincere co-worker their tribute of honor and respect.

AN INTERNATIONAL SUMMER SCHOOL IN FRANCE

WILL S. MONROE
State Normal School, Westfield, Mass.

Ten years ago a number of philanthropic gentlemen at Grenoble, France, induced the administrative board of the University of Grenoble to make provision for a special vacation session during the months of July, August, September, and October. It was the belief of these gentlemen that a city so exceptionally located as Grenoble, and with a splendid university plant idle during the summer months, furnished the opportunity of doing a needed piece of popular educational work—viz., furnish courses in the French language and literature to foreign students and teachers who might care to spend the summer vacation in the French Alps.

Grenoble, it will be recalled, is the ancient capital of Dauphiny. It is a city of seventy-five thousand inhabitants, and is situated at the juncture of the Isère and Drac rivers, on the western slopes of the French Alps. About it tower splendid mountain ranges and peaks, which are snow-covered throughout the year, and which attain elevations from eight to ten thousand feet; and within easy reach of Grenoble are the Grand Chatreuse, the Grand Goulets, Uriage-le-Bain, le Grève, and some of the other most picturesque sights in the Alpine system.

The University of Grenoble is one of the historic seats of learning in France. It was originally founded by a bull of Benedict XII in 1339, which was granted at the request of Humbert II, Count of Viennois. Its existence during the mediaeval period was precarious, but it ranks today as one of the best of the provincial French universities. It has faculties of letters, science, and law, and about three hundred students during the academic year, and with more than that number during the summer term.

The summer session is primarily for foreigners. Courses

are offered in the elements of the French language—phonetics, reading, and composition; French literature and history; geography of the French Alps; local arts and industries, and other subjects calculated to interest foreign teachers and students. There are courses suited to learners of all stages of progress in the language, and many illustrated lectures are given. A special feature is made of evening socials; and Saturdays are reserved for excursions among the mountains and to near-by places of historic interest.

The course of the past summer may be given as fairly typical of the work of the summer session. There were eight lectures on the relation of the French language to the civilization of France by Professor Besson, of the University of Grenoble; eight lectures on French lyric poetry by Mr. Brunet, of the *lycée* at Algiers; eight lectures on French fiction during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries by Professor Joliet, of the University of Bonn; eight lectures by Professor Marillot, of the University of Grenoble, on French fiction during the first half of the nineteenth century; eight lectures on the romantic drama by Mr. Brunet, and two lectures on Victor Hugo by Professor Chabert, of the University of Grenoble. There were, in addition, lectures on the contemporary French dramatic writers, Gustave Flaubert, Paul Herviere, and other literary topics.

There were two courses of ten lectures each on French history; the first, on Michelet, by Professor de Crozals, and a splendid course on modern history—perhaps the most helpful course offered during the summer—by Mr. Mauric, of the Grenoble *lycée*. The course in geography included six lectures on the Mediterranean countries by Mr. Chabrol, of the Vaucauson School of Commerce, and seven on the French Alps by Mr. Henri Ferrand, of Grenoble. There were several lectures on contemporary science, and two noteworthy courses on the fine arts —the first on the art of Grenoble and Dauphiny by Mr. Marcel Reymond, the distinguished art critic and historian, and the second on music by Mr. Allix, a discriminating lover of the tonal art. Mr. Salmon, of the local commercial school, gave a series of lectures and lessons on commercial French; Mr. Rosset con-

ducted a phonetic laboratory, and gave individual and class instruction in the syntax, morphology, and phonetics of French; Mr. Varenne gave a series of lessons on French vocabularies; Mr. Hardouin conducted composition classes, and there were classes in the translation of German, English, Italian, and Russian into the French. The German translation classes were conducted by Messrs. Besson, Herzog, and Joliet; the English classes, by Messrs. Mathias, Banjard and Jayet; the Italian classes, by Messrs. Hauvette, de Crozals, Guichard, and Matton; and the Russian classes, by Madame Koschkine. Thus, it will be seen, a very wide range of instruction was offered to those seeking to perfect their knowledge of the French language and literature.

The summer school is under the immediate direction of Mr. Marcel Reymond and a local committee of patronage composed of philanthropic citizens in Grenoble and professors in the different faculties of the university. But the extraordinary success of the vacation courses is very largely due to the devotion and untiring energy of Mr. Marcel Reymond. In the early history of the movement he was one of the most popular and helpful of the lecturers; but in recent years the administration of the school has consumed so much of his time that he has felt compelled to limit his lecture work to the art of Grenoble and Dauphiny, in which he is a recognized authority.

The expense of the school is moderate. The tuition for the summer is only eight dollars, and one may obtain good board in French families and boarding-houses for thirty dollars a month. One may enter or leave the school at any time. Those, however, who wish the certificate of the summer course must attend the school at least two months and take the required examinations. American teachers who contemplate taking the course may get the circulars of the summer school by addressing Mr. Marcel Reymond, president of the Committee of Patronage, Grenoble, France.

Three courses of the past summer were so significant that they justify special mention. I know of no course of lectures on French literature—Paris not excepted—to compare with the

excellencies of the lectures by Professor Marillot. He is one of the best literary lecturers in France. The *laboratoire de phonétique* of Mr. Rosset is one of the unique features of the school. Phonographs and all other conceivable appliances are utilized in teaching French to foreigners, with results that are surprising. One of the most helpful courses of the past summer was by Mr. Mauric, a professor in the local *lycée* and a comparatively young man; but his grasp of his subject, his mastery of the pedagogic art, and his quiet and reposeful manner easily gave him first rank among the lecturers of the last session.

As the title of the article suggests, the summer school at Grenoble is distinctly international. Of the 435 students in attendance the past summer, 181 were German, 62 Italian, 55 Russian, 42 English, 11 Scotch, 11 Irish, 26 American, 10 Austrian, 8 Polish, 8 Swiss, 7 Bulgarian, 5 Czech (Bohemian), 5 Swedish, with a scattering of Greeks, Armenians, Servians, Canadians, Danes, Brazilians, Argentinians, Dutch, Spanish, Portuguese, Finlanders, Roumanians, etc. For the student of education, Grenoble is a good place to study comparative school systems, since a large proportion of the students are teachers in elementary and secondary schools, colleges, and universities in their respective countries.

SELF-GOVERNMENT IN THE HIGH SCHOOL

P. A. WALKER
Shawnee, Okla.

The statement that "school is life" has been repeated so often that it is high time we were making it an active principle of our educational system, or were relegating it to the past as so much sentiment of the theorist. So long as the pupils are not permitted to do the things which make up the duties of the active citizen, our schools are failing to perform their true function in the community. With all the progress in the development of an educational system, we have done very little to raise the character of school government above the field of despotism, or to lay the foundation for practical citizenship. The principle of democratic self-government has been so long recognized in national governments that only the mediaeval institutions of countries like Russia and Turkey fail to permit of the participation of the individual in matters which affect the conduct of the community.

But while we have accepted republican government as a principle of our national life, we have made little effort in any practical way to inculcate the idea in our schools. What an opportunity we are missing for teaching practical self-government! We have not gone so far in the development of republican institutions that the pupil knows practical citizenship by instinct; on the contrary, the cry goes out that our citizens manifest a lethargy which bodes such serious ills to our commonwealth that some even say that popular government is doomed to failure. Nor is this wail uttered without some thought of the trend of the times. With our most prominent business men engaging in dishonorable practices, and our statesmen playing the part of the grafter, is it any wonder that the skeptic should cry "failure" at our system of government?

To the forebodings of the pessimist we answer that the hope of the state lies in the public schools. Then let us cease preaching

theories, and make the school what it ought to be—a laboratory for the development of character and the practice of citizenship. And there is certainly no better way to begin than to allow the pupils to organize into a self-governing community. By self-government is meant the participation of the pupils in making, interpreting, and enforcing the laws of the school. Self-government does not mean that breaking-away from all authority of the school, any more than home rule in the city means the absolute relegation of the authority of the state. Just as the state holds the city responsible for the life, liberty, and property of its citizens, so the teachers hold the pupils responsible for the conduct of the school.

Self-government rests on the democratic principle that the interests of the community are best served by the participation of the individuals in the policies which determine the welfare of the community. It also recognizes the educational principle so well stated by President Eliot, of Harvard, that "the real object of education, so far as the development of character is concerned, is to cultivate in the child a capacity for self-government—not a habit of submission to an overwhelming, arbitrary, external power, but a habit of obeying the dictates of honor and duty as enforced by active will-power within the child."

Self-government places stress on the formation of the character of the pupil, instead of leaving to the executive the necessity of reforming him when he leaves school. It develops by imposing responsibility. Like the kindergarten, it educates by employing the normal and personal activity of the pupil. It trains by action, rather than by precept.

Self-government is expected to prevent in the pupils who practice it that civic apathy which is now a menace to popular government, because it will inculcate into them a feeling of personal responsibility, and a respect for law and order. What better training could there be for responsible citizenship than throwing upon self-governing pupils the responsibility of the proper care of the building and grounds? Let committees appointed by the pupils themselves see to it that the rooms are properly kept, that paper is not thrown on the floor or stuffed

into the desks. Let a committee of pupils plan for the beautification of the school grounds.

Pupils rise to the responsibility placed upon them. In a night school in Mayayunk, a manufacturing suburb of Philadelphia, the discipline had got so poor that the discontinuance of the school was being considered; but Miss Chappel, the day principal, advised a trial of a self-governing plan. No sooner had the organization begun than the boys who had been going under assumed names, so as to escape publicity if brought into police court for the escapades in the school, came forward and gave their correct names, saying that if they were going to be intrusted with the government they wanted to by their own names.

Mr. C. N. Drum, of the Philadelphia schools, says: "The other day I stood in the halls of the Franklin School, where student government is in practice. No teachers were in sight. The children were entering the building in perfect order. Order seemed to be the first law in the school." Many instances may be cited of disorderly pupils who have reformed simply because they were intrusted with some responsibility upon being given a leading part in a system of self-government.

Other arguments might be brought up to show the advantages to be gained in civic and moral development. It is believed that the practice of self-government corrects a wrong attitude toward law and order by giving practice in law-making and law-enforcing. To quote from Dr. Frank Parsons, of Boston: "Habits of good citizenship are formed while the mind is plastic and open to the full force of considerations of right and justice, and free from commercial motives and other influences that in later life so often interfere with the duties of citizenship. The love of liberty is strengthened and ennobled by the recognition of the rights of others, and the necessity for mutual limitations for the public good."

But while the chief argument for self-government in the high school is based on that civic and moral development which makes for practical citizenship, the problem of how to secure good order must not be lost sight of. Self-government has brought order where all other attempts at government had failed.

In the previously mentioned night school in Philadelphia, order was immediately restored after the organization into a self-governing body. Principal French, of the Hyde Park High School, of Chicago, said that during the first year of the self-governing plan in his school an insignificantly small number of cases of discipline was referred to him, whereas during the previous years there had been an average of about three hundred.

Besides securing order, the self-governing plan will save the time of the teacher. To quote again from Mr. Drum, of Philadelphia: "The time formerly spent in duties outside of rooms saved to my teachers amounted in one day to five hours and twenty minutes; in one week, to twenty-six hours and forty minutes; in one year, to two hundred and fourteen school days. If the teachers are using that time in the preparation of lesson-work, at the present salary rate, the value to my school in one year is $642. In the Franklin School three hundred and twenty-one days are gained, amounting to $963 per annum."

Regarding the matter of the organization for self-government little need be said, for when the principle is once thoroughly understood its application can readily be made to any form of government with which the pupil comes into contact after leaving school. So far as its practical application in the school is concerned, the form is nonessential so long as the scheme is not made too complicated. Among the more recent practical attempts at self-government, the municipal form has been taken as a model, and school cities have been established. True, self-government has been tried more often in the grades than in the high school; but certainly, if pupils below the high-school age are capable of governing themselves, those in the high school should be more able to carry out a system of self-government.

The school-city idea originated with Mr. Wilson L. Gill. In 1896–97 Mr. Gill, who had been interested for some time in the teaching of practical citizenship, was consulted in regard to a New York school which had become so unruly that a policeman was permanently detailed to keep order on the school ground. Mr. Gill suggested that the school be organized into a self-governing body, with a legislature, executive, and judge of their

own election. This was done. The boys and girls were delighted with the responsibility and quickly established order. Mr. Gill saw at once the moral and civic value of school self-government, and gave up important business affairs to introduce the new system of civic training wherever opportunity offered. He took for his model the city government. The organized school he styled the school city. Since 1897 Mr. Gill has introduced the school city into more than thirty Philadelphia schools, and in a few schools in other cities. He spent two years in Cuba, employed by the United States government, to introduce his system into all the public schools of the island.

Besides, the school city has been organized in a number of schools without the personal supervision of Mr. Gill. Among these are the schools of Syracuse and New Platz, N. Y.; Omaha; Chicago; some of the schools on the Pacific coast, as well as those of Hawaii and the Philippines. Says the pamphlet *The School City,* published by the National School City League of Philadelphia: "Wherever the system has been earnestly and intelligently applied, marked success has been achieved."

The success of the school city is due partly to two things: the pride and enthusiasm with which pupils take hold of a system of self-government; and the practicability of the scheme when once put into operation. From Mr. Gill's Cuban report we quote the following: "At half-past one, five hundred boys of the city of Guines filed into a hall down-town for the purpose of organizing a school city. The councilmen and other leading men of the city were there. The *alcade,* or mayor, made an address, explaining the purpose and importance of the meeting. After the speeches and the election of officers, I called the newly elected councilmen and the mayor to the stage. The mayor's name is Antonio Franqui. Young Franqui bowed, smiled, and thanked his fellow-citizens for the honor they had conferred upon him, assured them that he would try to be worthy of their confidence, and begged them to do their part to make theirs a noble city." The spirit and enthusiasm shown made the whole thing thoroughly dramatic. "The alcade said: 'I fear, Mr. Gill, that it may sound extravagant, but I say to you with delibera-

tion, this is the greatest day of my life. It is the greatest event in the history of this town. I have seen the seeds of citizenship sown and take root, not only in the minds and hearts of these five hundred boys, but also in the hearts of the representative men of this city. One after another of the chief men of the city came up, and, unbidden, pledged me his support for the movement inaugurated on that day." The reports of General Leonard Wood and the statements of the Cuban press have attested the success of Mr. Gill's innovation in the school of the island.

Many prominent examples of the successful operation of the school-city type of self-government are to be found in the United States. In the John Crerar School of Chicago, composed of about eight hundred grammar-grade pupils, self-government has been in successful operation for about nine years. Its practicability is proved by the fact that it has been taken up by a number of the largest and best schools of the city, and by hundreds of individual teachers in other of the Chicago schools. When the school city was introduced into the Hyde Park High School, there was an enrolment of about fifteen hundred pupils. More than a year after the system had been put into operation, the principal, Mr. French, wrote: "We are using the municipal form in such a way as to acquaint the pupils with the principal functions of city government. We are thus able to teach most effectively lessons in sociology, civics, and ethics, as well as to secure a better self-control on the part of the pupils, and hence better order." Myron T. Scudder, principal of the State Normal School at New Platz, N. Y., says: "The school city, organized in this school five years ago, is increasingly vigorous, and is a powerful factor in our daily work. To me it is simply indispensable as an aid in school management, and I would not think for a moment of dropping it or of substituting some other form of organization."

Additional evidence could be quoted to prove the practicability of the self-governing scheme. Its success in the schools has called for the indorsement of semi-civic organizations, and of individuals like President Roosevelt; Chancellor E. Benjamin Andrews, of Nebraska; President Eliot, of Harvard; Professor Jackman, of

Chicago; and Dr. Albert Shaw. The Federation of Women's Clubs of Massachusetts and New York recommended the adoption of self-government in the schools of their states at their last annual meetings.

So far only the theory of self-government and its practicability as an organization for school management have been considered. By the adoption of self-government we begin a movement to make school a part of real life; to develop a higher and nobler citizenship; to arrest that dreadful apathy which keeps the best element in our community from taking any active part in the affairs of government, which prevents them from even registering to vote on a question like the sewer bonds, where the health of the city is at stake and the very lives of the people are in jeopardy. It is a movement to prevent that wantonness which allows corruption and selfishness to breed unchecked and to sap the vitality from our institutions.

In a state like ours, where advancement and democracy should be the keynotes of our existence, can we hesitate to hasten the adoption of a scheme which promises to give us a more rational and a more aggressive citizenship—a citizenship which shall ever foster the principles of liberty?

A LESSON IN GEOGRAPHY—FROM CHICAGO TO THE ATLANTIC

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The relative merits of teaching geography from books alone or from the earth itself is no longer a debatable question in any body of intelligent teachers. "Things before words" has become axiomatic. But in education we are prone to accept a principle in theory long before we put it into practice.

If any teacher cares to test the principle for himself, let him take a class into the field for several weeks of study. The teacher as well as the pupil will meet with many surprises. The teacher will detect even his best students gazing with unintelligent eyes upon a rich and interesting landscape, while the student will find that many subjects with which he had an intimate friendship in textbooks are indifferent strangers when met in nature.

Training in the ability to image from another's expression, to think through another's thoughts, to reason from premises established by someone else, does not develop initiative nor give power in action. It does not insure that a student can recognize even the things which he has described with satisfaction to the instructor, nor give him power to discover and organize a problem in the field—forming his own working hypotheses, discovering relevant data. But after a few weeks in the field the students seize upon a problem and follow it up day after day with increasing interest and enjoyment.

In reply to the question, "What of that called geography do the students learn on a field trip of a month or six weeks?" I submit the following superficial description of the region visited and the work done by a class of college students, School of Education, University of Chicago, during the second term of the last summer quarter.

The class was composed of fourteen teachers. Of the num-

ber, seven teach in normal schools, "teachers of teachers;" one is principal of a public school in one of the largest cities of the country; three are special instructors in geography in elementary schools; two are grade teachers; one is a graduate student.

THE ITINERARY

The party left Chicago at nine o'clock, the morning of July 30, over the Big Four Railroad for Louisville, Ky. The day was spent, as all others on the train, in making and recording observations on the topography, soil, rocks, vegetation, crops and other cultural features of the region passed through.

The special problem for the first day was to determine the limit and characteristics of the glacial drift along the route.

The first stop was made at Louisville to study the Ohio River valley, the falls, and sink holes which are finely illustrated here.

At Charleston, W. Va., the class made observations on the form and terraces of the valley of the Kanawha River; studied the sedimentary rocks of the Carboniferous period, the exposures of which along the bluffs of the river show excellent examples of the interbedding of coal; visited Malden, eight miles east of Charleston, to see the salt-works which have been so potent a factor in the history of this part of West Virginia; and studied the region of Coon Skin Creek, which occupies a part of the abandoned valley of the Elk River, a tributary of the Kanawha.

The next stop was made at Kanawha Falls for a study of the falls, the foundry of an aluminum company, and the great potholes in siliceous conglomerate exposed in the rock terrace at Gauley Junction. The night was spent at Thurmond, which boasts the only good hotel between Charleston and Clifton Forge. At Thurmond a coal-mine was visited, after which the party proceeded to Clifton Forge, Va.

On this journey the point of special interest, aside from the study of the New River cañon, was the discovery of the beginning of the folding and crumpling of the rock, which had appeared horizontally bedded throughout the region previously traversed.

A stop was made at Clifton Forge to study the great fold in the rocks called Rainbow Arch, which is exposed in the cañon of the Jackson River where it cuts through the Rich Patch Mountains. Just below the cañon, known as the Iron Gate, the Jackson River joins the Cow Pasture River to form the historic James.

South Glasgow was selected as the next stopping-place. It is a tiny village in the "Great Valley" just west of the Blue Ridge, at the beginning of the cañon which the James River has chiseled in its tortuous course through the mountains. From this village the Natural Bridge Region was visited. Mount Salling was climbed for a view of the "Great Valley." The contact between the sedimentary rocks to the west and the igneous rocks of the Piedmont was found about a mile below the village, exposed in the cañon of the James.

For a study of the Piedmont country and the tobacco industry, Lynchburg seemed the most desirable spot. From Lynchburg the James River was followed "on to Richmond." Here the Coastal Plain formations were seen lying just over the igneous rocks of the Piedmont; the contact was found in Shockoe Creek back of the Old Medical College; and visits were made to places of historic interest. On leaving Richmond, a part of the class went down the James River by boat to see the famous old homesteads—Shirley, Berkeley, Westover, Upper and Lower Brandon—and landed at the deserted spot where Jamestown once stood. The remainder of the party reached Williamsburg by rail, and drove the seven miles to Jamestown. After visits to some of the historic places in Williamsburg, and a boat trip to Yorktown by way of the wide tidal Queen's Creek and the York River, we journeyed to Hampton, where we were entertained at Hampton Institute, that excellent and interesting school for the training of Indians and negroes.

From here we visited the shipyards at Newport News, and went to Norfolk, Virginia Beach, and Cape Henry. At Cape Henry the fine examples of san-dunes were studied. The Jamestown Exposition Grounds are in plain view in crossing the Bay from Old Point Comfort to Norfolk, being just south of

Sewall Point, about five miles north of Norfolk. The trip from Hampton to Washington was made by boat, and while in Washington visits were made to the United States departments of geology, agriculture, soils, ethnology, entomology, and forestry. We were cordially received by the men in charge, who generously gave their time in instructing us as to the purposes of each of the departments and the character of its work. Through the special kindness of Dr. Hayes, of the Department of Geology, we were introduced to some of the interesting geological formations about Washington. After visiting Mount Vernon, Arlington, the Capitol, the Congressional Library, and other points of interest, we left Washington[1] for Luray, Va., over the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad to Shenandoah Junction, and the Norfolk & Western to Luray. A stop was made at Washington Junction,[2] about three-fourths of a mile east of "Point of Rocks," where the Potomac breaks through the Catoctin Mountains, twelve miles east of Harper's Ferry and forty-two miles from Washington.

On leaving Luray we continued up the Shenandoah valley to Basic City. After securing a magnificent view of the Shenandoah valley from the top of a hill, we crossed the valley to Clifton Forge, returning home over the line traversed in the onward journey, reaching Chicago, August 31.

SPECIAL POINTS STUDIED

General division.—The reason for selecting the special area from Chicago to the Atlantic Ocean was to give the students a view, although necessarily superficial, of the type land forms which constitute the eastern half of this continent, and which have played so great a rôle in the history of our people. These divisions are known as the Alleghany Plateau, which extends from the Alleghany Front to the Mississippi River; the Appalachian Mountain region, including the region from the Alleghanies to Blue Ridge; the Piedmont, from the Blue Ridge to the "Fall Line," which passes through Washington, Rich-

[1] A part of the class was obliged to return home from Washington.

[2] Within the distance of two miles along the railroad are excellent exposures of Juratrias, Cambrian, and Algonkian formations.

mond, Columbia, Augusta, and Macon; and the Coastal Plain, which extends from the "Fall Line" to the Atlantic Ocean. An attempt was made to trace the limit of each of these divisions along the route of travel. The rocks of the Alleghany Plateau are sedimentary, that is, made from materials deposited in water, which formed the sandstones, limestones, shales, and conglomerates of this region. The rocks are nearly horizontally bedded, looking like layers of a cake, as they are exposed in the bluffs of the numerous rivers which have dissected the plain.

The horizontal stratification of the rocks continues to a point near Hinton, W. Va., where slight tilting of the layers is first observed. Just east of Hinton, near Talcott, decided folding appears. The most perfect example of the Appalachian type form, however, on this route is the Rainbow Arch at Clifton Forge. Here the quartzite rocks have been forced up, forming a beautiful solid arch.

The sedimentary rocks, tilted, folded, and contorted, continue to a point just below a station known as Balcony Falls, Va. Here, in the Blue Ridge, the sedimentary rocks lie against the granite of "Appalachia," the old continent from which the sediments now made into the Appalachian Mountains were doubtless derived.

From Balcony Falls granites, schists, and gneisses are the dominant rocks to Richmond, Va., where the older rocks disappear under the Coastal Plain.

Besides making the acquaintance of these broader areas referred to above, opportunity was afforded for the study of certain of the earth-shaping forces, as the work of glaciers, surface streams, underground water, wind, waves, tides, ocean currents, and diastrophism. Stops were made where the most marked expression of any of these forces was exhibited. The vegetation, industries, and historic places were not overlooked.

Glaciated country.—The glaciated region was crossed between Chicago and Greensburg, Ind., a distance of about 240 miles. It was studied from the car windows only, but from even so superficial a view some knowledge of the topography and of the materials which compose the drift can be obtained. We left

the level Chicago Lake plain near Homewood, Ill., going on to the rolling Valparaiso moraine. The surface of the glaciated region traversed is for the most part rather level, but relieved in places, however, by heterogeneously distributed hills, and dotted with swamps and ponds. Boulders are scattered aimlessly about, and the railroad and river cuts expose the clays, sands, and gravels which compose the drifts. The kind and condition of crops also told the story of the nature of soil.

Underground water.—The work of underground water, which, by reason of its concealment, is always surrounded with a certain mystery and fascination, reveals its "black arts" in the limestone region of southern Indiana, Kentucky, and the "Great Valley" in Virginia just west of the Blue Ridge Mountains. We stopped at Louisville, Ky., to study at close range the interesting depressions in the surface of the country known as "sink holes." In Cave Hill Cemetery, Louisville, are fine illustrations of this type of the work of underground water. When the rock has been dissolved until the roof of a cavern becomes too weak to support itself, it collapses, leaving these depressions in the surface. Sink holes are sometimes very shallow, and look like huge saucers; again, they may be elliptical in shape, while their depth may be measured in inches or in hundreds of feet. These pits or depressions are frequently filled with water, making ponds and lakes in regions whose surface drainage is otherwise well developed. Throughout the Blue Grass region and the "Great Valley" the eye becomes skilled in recognizing "sink hole" landscapes. At Luray Cave in the Shenandoah valley, about fifty-five miles southwest of Harper's Ferry, are very striking results of this wonderful agent. In these caverns are displayed the most beautiful formations of stalactites and stalagmites, rivaling exquisite tapestry in design and color. These remarkable deposits certainly suggest power no less than magic.

While the caverns of Luray are among the most beautiful of their kind, they are not more interesting to the student of the work of underground water than the region about Natural Bridge, Virginia. Not only the celebrated bridge, but also the caves, sink holes, calcareous deposits, and roaring "Lost River"

all bear unmistakable evidence of the solubility of limestone. An interesting deposit of calcareous tufa, or travertine, may be found along the road about half-way between the famous bridge and Natural Bridge Station, three miles distant. The little stream flowing parallel to the highway is overcharged with calcareous matter which is precipitated in a beautiful terraced mound resembling, in form at least, that of the Mammoth Hot Spring in the Yellowstone Park.

Surface streams.—The work of running water upon the surface of the land is no less wonderful than that of underground water in its degrading and aggrading power; but its results are always before us, and hence become so familiar that they cease to stimulate the imagination, unless the grandeur of the scenery arrests the attention. In passing through the cañon of the New River from Kanawha Falls to Glades, W. Va., the Iron Gate near Clifton Forge, the cañon of the James at Balcony Falls, and through the gorge in Blue Ridge at Harper's Ferry, the aesthetic emotions frequently crowd out intellectual calculations, and it is not until the milder and more familiar type of landscape is reached that the meaning begins to be realized.

The description of the various results of the work of surface streams cannot here be given, but of the work of surface streams there is no form of wearing or building possible to rivers that is not well illustrated in some part of the region under consideration. There are valleys in every stage of erosive history, from the narrowest steep-sided gorge to the wide, level-bottomed, flood-plain; falls, terraces, islands, deltas, abandoned valleys, drowned valleys, with all the phenomena these terms imply.

Cultured influence of rivers.—The cultural influence resulting from the work of running water could not be overlooked. The magnetic attraction for railroads exercised by valleys was everywhere noted. From Ashland, Ky., to Richmond, Va., a distance of 373 miles, one is seldom out of sight of water. The distance of about twenty miles between Huntington, W. Va., and Scary, where the wide Teay Valley is traversed, must be excepted. This depression is believed to be the abandoned valley

of the Kanawha River, but now only the insignificant Mud River flows through it for a part of its course.

When the Kanawha occupied this valley it is probable that the Ohio River did not exist, but that the Kanawha ran almost due west from just below St. Albans, instead of northwest as at present. It continued through the present Scioto River, and discharged toward the north. The subsequent ponding, during the glacial period, of the north-flowing rivers gave birth to the Ohio.[3] The effect of falls upon the human history was noted at many places. The falls or rapids in the Ohio River at Louisville were almost obliterated at the time of our visit by the high waters due to excessive rains; hence it took no little stretch of the imagination to realize the great influence these falls had had upon the development of the Middle West. But George Rogers Clarke appreciated the importance of this interruption of the navigation of the Ohio as early as 1778, and made the beginning of the present important city of Louisville.

The next falls of note are the Kanawha Falls, about a mile below the point where the clear waters of the Gauley River join the boiling chocolate of the New to form the Kanawha. These picturesque falls at the entrance of the beautiful gorge of the New River have as yet exerted little power as an urban stimulus, the result being the miserable little village of Stockton. Notwithstanding the insigficance of this hamlet, chromium from Turkey, Caledonia, Brazil, and Canada has found its way here to meet the coal, iron, and sand of the region, and armor plate for war vessels is the result.

The last falls seen going down the James River are of great importance, for they have given to Virginia her famous capital, and have stimulated many industries.

Of the numerous factories which line the banks of the James River at Richmond, we visited but one—a blotting-paper manufactory. We were surprised to learn here that American rags are not sufficiently worn to be used in making the finest blotting-papers, and that "best rags" are imported from Egypt, Turkey, Greece, and Germany. Whether our deficiency in this line is

[3] *Geologic Atlas*, Charleston Folio, 1901.

due to our wealth or extravagance may be a debatable question, yet either seems comforting when one gazes upon the great piles of unspeakable, evil-odored rags, and he wonders if the ten-hours' boiling in caustic soda will be sufficient to sterilize the impurities of Europe and Africa. Apprehensive of the danger in such importations, one almost wishes, even in this free-trade-loving region, that there were a prohibitive tariff upon such imports.

While the rapids and falls stimulate manufactories and the growth of cities, the flood-plains of the rivers denominate the rich agricultural lands of many districts. The contrast between the fertile plains along the James River and the exhausted uplands of Virginia is forced upon the attention of the most listless observer. The value of rivers as giant excavators, laying bare the secret riches of the earth in the form of building-stone, minerals, metals, oil, and gas, is strikingly illustrated in the Kanawha and New River valleys from Charleston to Quinnimont, W. Va., a distance of about seventy-five miles. Here the cliffs, almost perpendicular in places, rising seven or eight hundred feet above the water, are perforated from top to bottom with coal shafts. The buildings at the mouths of the shafts cling to the tree-covered rocks as woodpeckers to the trunk of a tree, while the coke-ovens make a necklace of fire along the seething waters of the New River.

Tides.—The recent sinking of the Coastal Plain has so depressed the river valleys as to allow the influence of the tides to be felt many miles back from the sea. The ebb and flow in the James River reach as far as Richmond, eighty-five miles from Old Point Comfort. Even the creeks in the lower Coastal Plain are wide, navigable, tidal rivers.

Waves and currents.—The coast between Virginia Beach and Willoughby Spit affords an excellent opportunity for the study of the work of waves and currents as well as of tides. Willoughby Spit, which is about eight miles north of Norfolk, is a typical fish hook of sand, built by the waves and currents for almost three miles out into Hampton Roads. The end of the spit is about equidistant from Old Point Comfort.

Work of wind.—The coast also furnishes the best place for the study of the work of wind. A great amount of sand is brought up by waves and currents along the Atlantic in this district, providing material which can be easily transported by the wind. The best example of aeolian deposit is found at Cape Henry. The sand stretches for miles along the coast and reaches back from the famous Cape for about a mile and a half in beautiful cream-colored billows, whose crests rise eighty feet above the sea, burying the struggling forest under their smothering weight.

Diastrophism—rising and sinking of the land.—Changes of the surface of the land are not due to the agents of water, ice, and wind alone; for evidences of the internal movements of the earth are seen, not only in the displaced, folded, and contorted rocks of the Appalachian Mountains and the Piedmont, but also in intrusions of igneous rocks in the Piedmont. The records of recent changes in the relation of the land and the ocean are found in the "drowned" valleys of the Coastal Plain—the Chesapeake Bay and the tidal stretches of the James, York, and Potomac Rivers. Old pine-tree stumps, which now stand in the Chesapeake Bay at Buckroe Beach near Old Point Comfort, bear evidence of very recent encroachment of the sea in this region.

Historical geology.—The birthdays of landscapes are not marked by the dial of a clock, but by great changes in the surface of the land. When the land has risen after the encroachment of the sea, as seen in the Coastal Plain, a marine deposit is left over the valleys, plains, and hills.

From the evidences of such events, and the changes in life left as fossils in the rocks, geologists have been able to interpret a part of the history of the earth.

By examining a geological map of the eastern portion of the United States, it will be seen that in a trip from Chicago to the Atlantic Ocean one passes over rocks representing all the geologic eras and periods which man has devised for the classification of the great events of terrestrial history. The oldest rocks are called Archeozoic,[4] and are found between the "Fall Line"

[4] The Proterozoic are here included under Archeozoic.

and the Blue Ridge, a distance of 175 miles from Balcony Falls to Richmond. The rocks are mainly igneous, with some sedimentary deposits greatly changed or metamorphosed by pressure, heat, and moisture.

The next great series of rocks in point of age is known as the Paleozoic, and is found between Chicago and the Blue Ridge Mountains. The mountains and valleys, west of the Blue Ridge, in Virginia and West Virginia, the hills and plains of Kentucky and Indiana, as well as the area underlying the drift of Illinois and Indiana, were formed from these sedimentary deposits.

Great metamorphism, occasioned in the process of mountain-making, has changed the sandstones to quartzites, the limestones to marble, and the shales to slates, in many places in the Appalachian mountains.

The formations of the Mesozoic, the next great era, are represented in various places on the Piedmont (these were noted about Washington and Washington Junction), while the Coastal Plain exhibits the youngest sediments known as the Cenozoic. These newly formed rocks are but slightly consolidated sands, marls, and clays.

Vegetation.—The vegetation between Chicago and the Atlantic is characterized by a great sameness. Lists of trees and plants made at various places along the route are remarkable for their similarity, the differences being found in the addition or the subtraction of but a few species. Where trees abound one soon learns to expect oak, elm, maple, birch, sycamore, hickory, walnut, alder, willow, ironwood, ash, bass-wood, hackberry, beech, sassafras, chestnut, and pine. These are distributed along the streams or on the higher land, according to the habit of the tree. The holly, magnolia, and cypress, cultivated in Louisville, are abundant in the forests of the Coastal Plain. The wahu, whose fruit at this season resembles that of a small sour sop of the tropics, was common through West Virginia and Virginia. The pawpaw and persimmon, which appeared in central Indiana, continued in greater abundance into Virginia. The Ailanthus spreads from the Ohio to the coast.

The uniformity of vegetation due to natural causes of distri-

bution was less surprising than the similarity of crops. From Chicago to the Atlantic one is practically immersed in a sea of corn. I believe that throughout the entire distance there is not a tillable area of any considerable size from which this beautiful tropical-looking plant is absent. The complete domination of corn was broken by an occasional field of wheat- or oat-stubble in Indiana, and by hemp and tobacco in Kentucky. Virginia, where once tobacco was riches and legal tender of the commonwealth, seemed to have submitted herself in servitude to King Corn. When inquiry was made as to the cause of the change in dynasties, the Virginian replied: "The exhaustion of the soil for tobacco, and the price of seventy-five cents per bushel for corn."

Notwithstanding the untiring efforts of the United States Agricultural Department in finding crops best suited to various soils, the average farmer knows and loves corn and wheat, and is slow to change his affections.

So much had we heard of the Blue Grass of Kentucky that our vivid imaginations pictured unparalleled horses and cattle standing side by side up to their necks in blue grass. A veritable agricultural and grazing fairyland! Hence the contrast with the reality was not a little disadvantageous to this famous historic, limestone district. In comparison with the fertile plains of Illinois, Iowa, and Indiana it yielded the palm to these rich prairie lands. Such must be the price paid for literary reputation. Even the famous Shenandoah Valley suffered in a similar manner. But after a few weeks spent in the less fertile regions of Virginia and the rugged, agriculturally inhospitable areas of West Virginia, the return to the Blue Grass district gave a much more favorable impression, for in comparison with hilly Kentucky and West Virginia it is rich beyond its enviable reputation. The acres of dark brown hemp tied up like shocks of corn, the tobacco curing in the fields and bulging from the great barns, and the golden corn were grateful to our eyes inured to rich western agricultural lands.

Other occupations.—Agriculture is not the only occupation the region supports. At Lynchburg we visited a tobacco manu-

factory, where chewing and smoking tobacco are prepared for the market. The sorting and stemming of the tobacco leaves by the happy, singing negro men and women, was a sight to be expected in such a factory, but surprises lay in the manner of improving the flavor of the cigars and the taste of the chewing tobacco. The brown plugs and twists, seen in the stores, give no hint to the observer that the leaves have been soaked in a brown, dirty-looking syrup, and that licorice, powdered peaches, plums, apricots, or locust fruits veneer the tightly pressed leaves to improve the taste. In a like manner those ignorant of the allurements of smoking never dream that the flavors are obtained by the addition of various perfumes.

Oyster industry.—The Chesapeake Bay region has long been famous for the production of oysters. The life and culture of these bivalves proved very interesting to the party of inland dwellers. The black stakes, peering above the water in the lower York and James Rivers, marked the limit of acreage rented from the state by the oyster farmers. We were told that the best seed oysters are obtained from the James River and are transplanted into the York, allowing from five hundred to a thousand bushels to the acre. After growing for about eighteen months, they are harvested and prepared in the factories for the market.

History.—The historic aspects of the region visited were in charge of Miss Emily J. Rice, head of the department of history in the School of Education. We saw the beginning of the Virginian comonwealth in the low church tower and the graveyard at Jamestown; followed its development at Williamsburg, Yorktown, and Richmond; reviewed the Peninsular Campaign; learned the meaning of Hampton Roads, Arlington, Mount Vernon, and the Shenandoah Valley; and traced the "Westward Movement" across the mountains into the wide, fertile plains of the Mississippi Valley.

Method.—The day was spent in the field, followed by a conference at night. At the conference the past observations and experiences were discussed and interpreted as far as possible.

The students prepared for the work of the following day by the use of maps or other material at hand. From information

thus obtained they predicted the appearance of the country, the geologic and cultural aspects, suggesting problems which would arise for solution. Notes were kept in the field, and, after the close of the field course, reports of the entire trip were written.

Expense.—The expense for the trip was one hundred and five dollars. This is exclusive of the tuition fee.

MATERIALS USED ON THE TRIP FROM CHICAGO TO WASHINGTON, DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA, AND RETURN

INSTRUMENTS:

Hammers, clinometers, compasses, aneroids.

MAPS:

United States Geological Survey. Topographic. The maps are listed in the order in which they were used. Where ** appear the country is not mapped.

Chesapeake & Ohio Railroad—

1. Kenova Quadrangle, Kentucky, West Virginia.
2. Huntington Quadrangle, West Virginia.
3. Charleston Quadrangle, West Virginia.
4. Raleigh Quadrangle, West Virginia.
5. Kanawha Falls Quadrangle, West Virginia.
6. Hinton Sheet, West Virginia.
7. Lewisburg Sheet, West Virginia, Virginia.

Clifton Forge & Richmond Division, Chesapeake & Ohio Railway—

8. Natural Bridge Sheet, Virginia.
9. Lexington Sheet, Virginia.
10. Lynchburg Sheet, Virginia.
11. Appomattox Sheet, Virginia.
12. Buckingham Sheet, Virginia.
13. Palmyra Sheet, Virginia.
14. Goochland Sheet, Virginia.
15. Richmond Sheet, Virginia.
16. Bermuda Hundred Sheet, Virginia.

* * *

17. Norfolk Quadrangle, Virginia, North Carolina.
18. Washington Quadrangle, Maryland, Virginia, District of Columbia.

Main Line, Chesapeake & Ohio Railroad (returning from Washington)—

19. Mount Vernon Sheet, Virginia, Maryland.
20. Warrenton Sheet, Virginia.
21. Spottsylvania Sheet, Virginia.
22. Gordonsville Sheet, Virginia.
23. Harrisonburg Sheet, Virginia.
24. Staunton Sheet, Virginia, West Virginia.
25. Monterey Quadrangle, Virginia, West Virginia.

Baltimore & Ohio Railroad Shenandoah Junction, West Virginia (route to Luray)—

18. Washington Quadrangle, Maryland, Virginia, District of Columbia.
19. Harper's Ferry Sheet, Virginia, Maryland, West Virginia.

Norfolk & Western Railroad from Shenandoah Junction to Basic City via Luray—

20. Winchester Sheet, Maryland, Virginia, West Virginia.
21. Luray Sheet, Virginia.
22. Woodstock Sheet, Virginia.
23. Harrisonburg Sheet, Virginia.
24. Staunton Sheet, Virginia.

At Basic City the Main Line of Chesapeake & Ohio is reached, and maps read forward beginning with Staunton Sheet, No. 24, to No. 25.

25. Monterey Quadrangle, Virginia, West Virginia.

After leaving Monterey Quadrangle, return trip maps read backward from Natural Bridge Sheet, Virginia.

UNITED STATES GEOLOGIC ATLASES:

Folios—

Huntington, West Virginia.
Charleston, West Virginia.
Monterey, Virginia, West Virginia.
Raleigh, West Virginia.
Norfolk, Virginia, North Carolina.
Washington, District of Columbia.
Harper's Ferry, Virginia, Maryland, West Virginia.
Staunton, Virginia, West Virginia.

NOTE.—Topographic maps may be obtained by addressing the Director of the Geological Survey, Department of the Interior, Washington, District of Columbia, for three cents each by the hundred, or five cents apiece singly. Stamps are not accepted in payment. Maps should be described as in the list given above. Folios may be ordered in the same way, price twenty five cents.

Other Maps—

Geologic Maps of the United States.
State Maps of Illinois, Indiana, Kentucky.
Map showing occurrence of coal, oil, and gas in West Virginia by I. C. White, State Geologist.
Map showing the location of the battlefields of Virginia, Chesapeake & Ohio Railroad, 1906.
General Map of the Drift of the Northeastern United States, Sixth Annual Report, Plate XXIII.

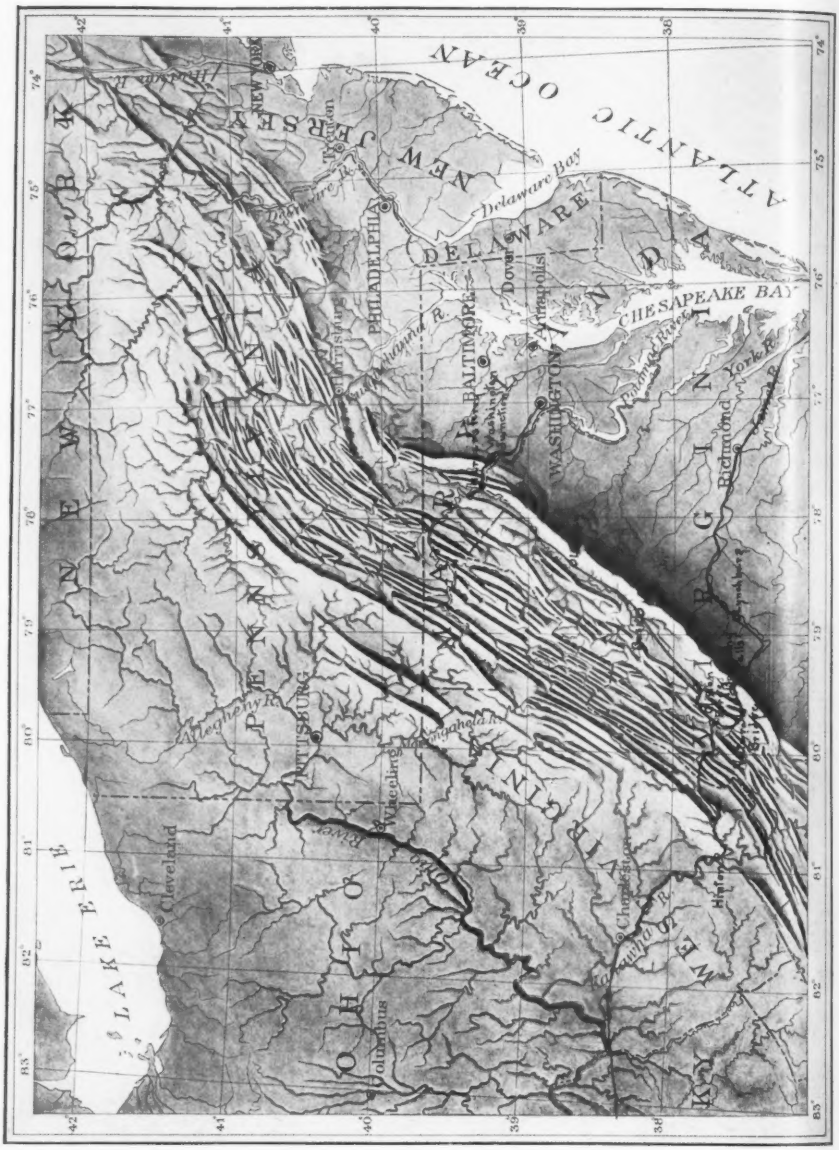
BOOKS CARRIED FOR THE USE OF STUDENTS:

Geology and Geography—

Chamberlin and Salisbury, *Geology.*
Dana, *Textbook in Geology.*
Davis, *Physical Geography.*
West Virginia Geological Survey, Vol. I*a*, 1904.
Froehling and Robertson, *A Hand Book of the Minerals and Mineral Resources of Virginia* (Richmond, Va.).
Shaler, *Dismal Swamp. Physiography of the United States.* (American Book Co.).

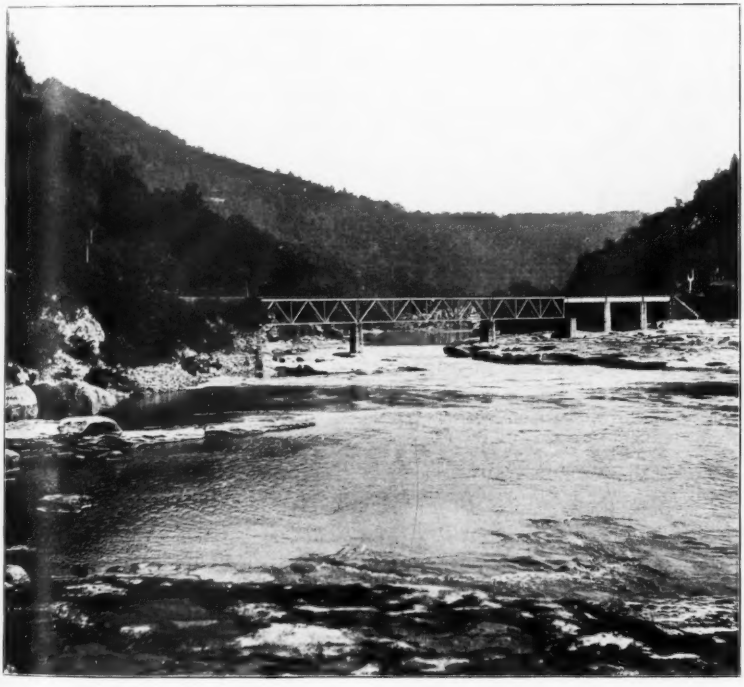
Georg Thorne-Thomsen

1. Chicago
2. Greensburg
3. Louisville
4. Huntington
5. Charleston
6. Thurmond
7. Hinton
8. Clifton Forge
9. South Glasgow
10. Lynchburg
11. Richmond
12. Williamsburg
13. Old Point Comfort
14. Norfolk
15. Washington
16. Washington Jc.
17. Harper's Ferry
18. Luray



NORTHERN APPALACHIAN MOUNTAINS

JAMES RIVER CAÑON—BALCONY FALLS



NEW RIVER CAÑON—GAULEY JUNCTION

RAINBOW ARCH, CLIFTON FORGE, VIRGINIA

COASTAL PLAIN, FROM SAND-DUNE, CAPE HENRY, VIRGINIA

Botany—

Brittain and Brown.

History—

Semple, *American History and Its Geographic Conditions.*

Shaler, *Kentucky.*

Fiske, *Old Virginia and Her Neighbors.*

Cooke, *Virginia.*

Fisher, *Men, Women, and Manners in Colonial Times,* Vol. I.

Coman, *Industrial History of the United States.*

Other References—

Shaler, *Memoirs of Kentucky.*

Rogers, *Geology of Virginias.*

Keith, "Piedmont Plateau, Geological Survey," *Fourteenth Annual Report,* p. 366.

McGee, "History of the Piedmont Plateaus," *National Geographic Magazine,* Vol. VII (1895).

Davis, "Stream Contests along the Blue Ridge," *Bulletin Geographic Society of Pennsylvania,* April, 1903.

Semple, "Influence of Appalachian Barrier upon Colonial History," *Journal of School Geography,* Vol. I.

Fontaine, "Some Points in the Geology of the Blue Ridge in Virginia," *American Journal of Science,* Vol. IX (1875).

Keith, "Geologic Structure of the Blue Ridge," *American Geologist,* Vol. X (1892).

Dryer, *Studies in Indiana Geography.*

Gannett, *A Gazetteer of Virginia,* Department of the Interior, United States Geological Survey.

"Kentucky River Basins," *Journal of Geology,* Vol. IV, p. 671.

"Kanawha River Basins," *ibid.,* p. 669.

Randolph, "People of Virginia," *National Geographic Magazine,* Vol. VII.

McGee, "Geographic Development of the District of Columbia," *ibid.,* Vol. IX.

Brigham, *Geographic Influences in American History.*

Jefferson, "Atlantic Estaurine Tides," *National Geographic Magazine, Vol.* IX.

Puston, "Tides of Chesapeake Bay," *ibid.,* Vol. X.

Tight, "Drainage Modifications in Southeastern Ohio and Adjacent Parts of West Virginia and Kentucky" *Professional Paper 13,* United States Geological Survey.

Walcott, "The Natural Bridge of Virginia," *National Geographic Magazine,* Vol. V.

ILLUSTRATVE READING:

Allen, *Reign of Law.*

Churchill, *The Crisis.*

Dye, *The Conquest.*

Fox, *Little Shepherd of Kingdom Come.*

Johnston, *To Have and to Hold.*

Johnston, *Audrey.*

Glasgow, *The Battleground.*

A SERIES OF LESSONS ON WATER

MABEL M. DIMENT

During the fall quarter of 1905 the fourth grade in the School of Education began the study of the growth of Chicago from the historical and civic standpoints. On the historical side the approach was made through a study of the early French settlers and explorers of the Northwest. This included the story of LaSalle and his efforts to establish trading-posts and forts near the Great Lakes, and also the development of trading-posts at Kaskaskia, Vincennes, Detroit, and Fort Dearborn.

Fort Dearborn was taken as the real basis of the Chicago of today, and a model of it was actually constructed in class. Its evolution from that of trading-post to fort and to a village was compared with the Chicago of the present time.

On the civic side, the following problems were taken into consideration: the system of streets and bridges; the drainage system; the illuminating plants; the way the city is governed; and the city water system, and it was in this connection that the experiments for purifying water were given.

A study was made of the development of Chicago's great water system from the time it was simply dipped from the lake to the great crib system of the present time. The construction of the crib was studied, and expeditions were made to the pumping-stations. The methods of purifying water at the cribs were noted. The experiments given were to illustrate the means we have at hand for purifying the city supply, and to show whether it does purify it or not.

First there was a general discussion dealing with the general and specific sources of water, the cycle of rain to rain by means of evaporation and rainfall, leading up to the question of why we attempt to purify water, how we do it, and how we can prove it purified.

Then followed experimentation. Three kinds of water were used which could easily show any change: water plus a little sand

or mud was taken as a type of substances in suspension in water; water colored with red ink, and water in which salt was dissolved, as types of substances in solution. One most essential thing is to have every flask absolutely clean before beginning an experiment, or the object of the experiment may be entirely lost.

Among the ways mentioned by the children for purifying water were boiling, filtering, and distilling, and we took these as three typical methods. We first boiled each of the three kinds of water, to see if boiling could purify it. The results were compared with some of the unboiled water; and as no change for the better was noted, the muddy water remaining just as muddy, the colored water just as red, and the salty water saltier than before on account of the evaporation of some of the water leaving the salt, it was concluded that boiling did not purify the water. (In the beginning of the lessons the children were all anxious to say that the object of boiling, filtering, and distilling was to kill the germs, so we took for granted that it did, and we were to see what the boiling, etc., did to the other impurities.)

It was necessary for the children to keep records of their experiments in order to compare results, and this necessitated reading, writing, and spelling. In the written lessons they followed this outline:

I. Why did we make this experiment?
II. What did we do?
III. What happened?

The drawing lessons consisted of drawing the apparatus, and these were used to supplement the written lessons. The spelling lesson consisted of words frequently occurring in the written lessons.

Filtering was the second experiment, and for this the apparatus was set up in the following way:

The funnels contained a layer of filter paper, and these were filled with clean sand, which should be saturated with clear water before the impure water is poured on. Boxes filled with sand, and having an opening to allow the filtered water to run off, could be used to good advantage to illustrate the use in many cities of filter beds for purifying water. When sufficient

amounts had filtered through to show results, they were compared with the original water. It was observed that the salty water remained as salty as before, the colored water had not changed color, but the muddy water had become clear. From former work the children knew that colored and salty water were types of things in solution in water, and muddy water of things in suspension; so they concluded that filtering must take out things in suspension, but not things in solution. The written, drawing, and spelling lessons in connection with this experiment were given in much the same way as with the previous experiment.

The third way mentioned of purifying water was by distilling, and we were to find out if it really did purify the water. The apparatus for this experiment was a little more complicated than that for the others.

The water was allowed to boil some time to get a sufficient amount distilled over to show results. The children noticed the bubbles of steam come from the bottom of the flask to the surface of the water and break into steam; the steam rise and condense in the cold tube and fall as clear drops in the other flask. The distilled water was compared with the undistilled, and it was seen that distilling had taken out all impurities, things in suspension as well as things in solution; and so it was concluded that distilling was the best way to purify water. The written lessons were given the same as before, with the final question: "Which of the three ways is the best to purify water and why?" The drawing and spelling lessons were given as in previous experiments.

Many other little experiments had to be performed also further to convince a child of some statement, or to prove a statement of which he was not sure. For instance, one child did not seem to understand that boiling did not take out impurities; he thought they evaporated as the water evaporated. Therefore a little of each of the three kinds of water was boiled dry, and in one flask only the dry salt remained in the bottom, in another dry sand, and in the third the red coloring-matter of the ink looking like brick dust, showing that the water, but not the impurities, had evaporated in boiling.

SPRING POEMS BY A FIFTH GRADE

ELSA MILLER
Fifth Grade, Francis W. Parker School

Following is a report of some work in composition done by the pupils of the fifth grade of the Francis W. Parker School.

The class mentioned has heard and read, in its course through the primary grades, much of the best literature and poetry for children. They live in an environment where they come in contact with the best that a city park can give. They make frequent excursions to the woods and lake shore. Many spend summers out in the country, by lake or seaside, or in the mountains. Some hear good literature and poetry read aloud at home. These conditions form a wholesome, helpful fund of observation, experience, and imagination which must find expression.

The first of May in the Francis W. Parker School is a tree-planting day. The children choose some tree, shrub, or vine to plant in some spot on the school grounds which needs beautifying. The planting is attended by a festival with May queen, singing, and dancing. All the children in the school, who wish, write poems, which they read to the school and to the May queen on that day. She selects, with the aid of the teachers, the best one, and favors the author with a May basket. The chosen poem is set to music by some grade, or by individual members of the school, for the next May festival. Every song is sung to the school by the composer, or by a small chorus. Last year the chosen poem was sung with six different musical settings, composed in the regular music periods by the various children. Obviously this festival affords a very natural opportunity for poetical and musical expression, though necessarily the results are crude.

During the spring season the children had opportunity to talk about the numerous signs of spring, the beauty of the early

spring flowers which they gathered, the sounds which they heard in the woods, the odors of the soft soil which they spaded in the garden and of the new moist grass which they uncovered, and the soft, delicate colors of the season which pleased them. All this work was done without mention of the writing of poetry; in fact, their desire to write came from these talks.

One day it was suggested that they write about what they liked best in the spring time, and, if they chose, write in verse. They immediately suggested that each child write a spring poem for May Day. They stipulated that these poems should be written without signatures and be placed in a basket on the table. They were to be read to the class by the teacher. The majority were eager and ready to write. They worked silently, without question to the teacher or to each other, to avoid influence and suggestion by others. They were allowed to write until they had finished. Some, as the results will show, had little to say, and others were more free in their expression.

Another day the poems were read aloud. After the first reading the children asked to hear some poems re-read. Some began to mark to meter, and detected faults and suggested changes. The teacher then wrote a familiar poem on the board and scanned it. The number of feet in a line was noted. The children scanned parts of many poems which they knew, and discovered how the number of feet in a line varied in different poems, how the length of lines in the same poem varied, and how corresponding lines of stanzas agreed. They wished now to mark their own poems to see whether feet or lines were missing. They consulted one another, and changed a line or a word here and there. *The work of every child in the class is given below, and as here presented stands in form as the children corrected it.* That is, no actual work was done by the teacher.

Several poems were chosen to be read to the May queen. Later every child read his verses to the school in a regular morning exercise. This required an introduction, which the children wrote with combined effort. The humorist of the class furnished the closing couplet.

THE POEMS

A MORNING EXERCISE

This morning exercise is begun,
We hope you'll all enjoy the fun.
We made some rhymes with many lines
To tell you of spring's happy times.
Some thoughts are of the birds and flowers,
And some of sun and some of showers.
We hope you'll think of shady bowers
Where you may sit in sunny hours.

—Read by DORIS; composed by the grade.

SPRING

The sweetest time of all the year
  Is the joyous time of spring,
When grass is green, and skies are clear,
  And birds are on the wing.

Now on the banks of laughing brooks
  The nodding violet grows,
And every pussy willow looks
  Like wee gray kitten's toes.

Hepaticae now push their way
  With all their tiny might.
And on their stems of hairy gray,
  Hang stars of blue and white.

—FRIEDA MAYNARD

SPRING

The days grow warmer and grow bright
And after them a nice spring shower,
To start the little plants a-growing
So's to be green some summer hour.

The mother tree puts on her leaves
To hide the nests the birds have made,
To give us sprigs both fresh and green,
In summer days to give us shade.

—LUCY DUNLAP SMITH

SPRING THOUGHTS

The trees are budding,
The flowers their winter caps throw off.
The bluebirds are singing,
The roses are sending sweet odors aloft.

The sky is blue,
Spring's sun is drying up the dew.
The grass is green
And yellow dandelions gleam.

—ELIZABETH BEULAH BECKLER

SPRING POEM

This is the time of year
When birds and flowers are here
In all their beauty.
The buds on the trees burst forth,
Then tiny leaves appear,
And lo, they are dressed in lovely green!
Birds are on the wing,
They sing a carol of joyous spring.

—CARLTON PRINDEVILLE

FOR IT IS MAY

The days are growing warmer,
The sun is shining bright,
The air is full of light—
For it is May.

The trees are swaying lightly,
Their leaves are growing green,
Then comes spring's joyous queen,
For it is May.

The robins with their nestlings
Are flitting through the trees
Mid sunshine and the breeze,
For it is May.

MILDRED ZENOS

MAY

May is best of all the year,
All things live and grow again;
  The tree sends out her baby leaves,
And birds build nests beneath the eaves.

All the seeds are in the ground,
Violets in the field are found;
Ducks are honking overhead,
The baby birds cry to be fed.

—JOSEPHINE PALMER

SPRINGTIME

  Spring has come
And the children have fun.
  The sun is shining
  And the flowers are tiny.
The leaves on the trees are green.

—GRANT MCDONALD

SPRING IN THE FOREST

    The grass is green,
    The robins are here,
And birds are thick in the air.

    The animals hunt,
    The wild bears roam
Far away from their native home.

    The fields look green,
    The trees make shade
In the far away, lonely forest glade.

—FRANK PACKARD

THE AWAKENING OF SPRING

The sleepy fields and meadows,
  At the call of spring,
Awaken after winter's doze,
  And the birds begin to sing, to sing
Of the spring, the glorious spring.

The cattle all are grazing
In the pastures green,
Their smooth old heads are never raising.
In every flower can be seen
The joy of spring, the glorious spring.

And when the spring is gone,
Comes summer with her beauties
In the garden and on the lawn.
But the spring is best for all.
Oh, the spring, the glorious spring!

—Doris Humphrey

WINTER'S GONE

The cold and frosty winter's gone,
The warm and sunny days are here,
The little squirrels play all day long
And then we know it's spring.

—Leslie Vaughn

SPRING

I love the bright warm days of spring,
When the flowers come out and the birds start to sing.
I love the bright warm days of spring,

—James Braithwaite

SPRING

With May-day comes the lovely spring
The ground is ready for the seed,
The father bird begins to sing;
The mother bird her young does feed.

The robin red-breast, fat and round,
Is tapping softly on the ground,
The foolish worm the signal hears,
And from the ground he soon appears.

—Leonard Marshall

SPRING

When spring comes forth to smile at last,
Then winter must on his way.
When Herald Jonquil blows his blast,
The flowers and leaves awake to sway
In the first warm breeze of May.

Then the robin sings its joyous song,
And the wood-brook runs away,
The bluebell rings its ting-a-tong.
Oh! the thrush comes forth to stay,
Sings as he flies up the southward way.

The violet wafts its fragrance sweet,
The crow he almost sings, but mates
Last of all comes the bobolink late,
Last of all with his mate.

When spring comes forth to smile at last,
Then winter must on his way.
When Herald Jonquil blows his blast,
The flowers and leaves awake to sway
In the first warm breeze of May.

—KATHARINE TILT

SPRING

Spring has gone
And so has May.
Thus we have no more to say.

—FREDERICK GANSBERGEN

LE JEU UN FACTEUR IMPORTANT DANS L'ENSEIGNEMENT D'UNE LANGUE

LORLEY ADA ASHLÉMAN
School of Education, University of Chicago

Not in the more dignified forms of literature, but in the language of the fire side, of the market place, of the social gathering is revealed the genesis of the language.

Le chant populaire ne ment pas, c'est le miroir le plus fidèle de la société.

The series of popular rounds and songs characteristic of France that we are publishing represents the people in their various social conditions, in their occupations, professions, industries, in their fêtes. They give us their ideals of chivalry, their love for animals, birds, and flowers, and their deep appreciation of music and harmony.

ADDITIONAL RONDES[1]

DANSER

QUAND BIRON VOULUT DANSER

Cette chanson amuse beaucoup les enfants. Un des enfants de la classe joue le rôle de Biron. Sept ou huit autres lui servent de valets. Tous les autres forment le chœur. Le petit Biron assis majestueusement sur sa chaise s'écrie:

Biron: Mes souliers tout ronds!

Pendant que le chœur chante:

Quand Biron voulut danser,
Quand Biron voulut danser,
Ses souliers fit apporter, (*bis*)
Ses souliers tout ronds,
Vous danserez, Biron.

Le petit valet, tenant dans chaque main un soulier tout rond, s'avance, salue profondément Biron, lui met les souliers, puis avec toute la dignité d'un laquais anglais, il se tient derrière son maître.

Biron: Ma perruque à la Turque!

Le chœur reprend:

Quand Biron voulut danser, (*bis*)
Sa perruque fit apporter,
Sa perruque à la Turque.
Ses souliers tout ronds,
Vous danserez, Biron.

[1] See *Elementary School Teacher*, January, 1907.

Le valet s'avance avec la perruque et la lui pose sur la tête, puis il prend place à côté du premier valet.

Biron: Ma belle veste
A paillettes!

Le valet s'avance avec la belle veste et la lui met.

Le chœur reprend:

Quand Biron voulut danser, (*bis*)
Sa veste fit apporter, (*bis*)
Sa belle veste
A paillettes,
Sa perruque
A la Turque,
Ses souliers tout ronds,
Vous danserez, Biron.

Biron: Mon habit
De petit gris!

Le valet s'avance avec l'habit et le lui passe.

Le chœur reprend:

Quand Biron voulut danser, (*bis*)
Son habit fit apporter, (*bis*)
Son habit
De petit gris,
Sa belle veste
A paillettes,
Sa perruque
A la Turque
Ses souliers tout ronds,
Vous danserez, Biron.

Biron: Ma cravate
A la mode!

Le valet s'avance avec la cravate.

Le chœur: Quand Biron voulut danser, (*bis*)
Sa cravate fit apporter, (*bis*)
Sa cravate
A la mode,
Son habit
De petit gris,
Sa belle veste
A paillettes,
Sa perruque
A la Turque,
Ses souliers tout ronds,
Vous danserez, Biron.

Biron: Mes manchettes
Fort bien faites!

Le valet s'avance avec les manchettes.

Le chœur reprend:

Quand Biron voulut danser, (*bis*)
Ses manchettes fit apporter, (*bis*)
Ses manchettes
Fort bien faites,
Sa cravate
A la mode,
Son habit
De petit gris,
Sa belle veste
A paillettes,
Sa perruque
A la Turque,
Ses souliers tout ronds,
Vous danserez, Biron.

Biron: Mon chapeau
A clabot!

Le valet s'avance avec le chapeau.

Le chœur reprend:

Quand Biron voulut danser, (*bis*)
Son chapeau fit apporter, (*bis*)
Son chapeau
A clabot,
Ses manchettes
Fort bien faites,
Sa cravate
A la mode,
Son habit
De petit gris,
Sa belle veste
A paillettes,
Sa perruque
A la Turque,
Ses souliers tout ronds,
Vous danserez, Biron.

Au dernier couplet, Biron se lève et suivi de tous ses valets, il s'en va finalement au bal.

VOCABULAIRE

quand, ***when***
voulut, ***wanted***
danser, ***to dance***
son, ***his***, masc.
sa, ***his***, fem.
ses, ***his***, masc. and fem., plur.
les souliers, ***the shoes***
le soulier, ***the shoe***
ses souliers fit apporter, ***had his shoes brought***
rond, ***round***
tout, ***quite***
vous danserez, ***you will dance***
la perruque, ***the wig***
à la turque, ***in the Turkish style***
beau, ***beautiful***, masc.
belle, ***beautiful***, fem.
veste, ***vest***
à paillettes, ***spangled***
un habit, ***a coat***
de petit gris, ***speckled grey***
la cravate, ***the necktie***
à la mode, ***in style***
la manchette, ***the cuff***
fort bien faite, ***very well made***
le chapeau, ***the hat***
le chapeau à clabot, ***opera hat***

ENFANT

CADET ROUSSELLE

Cadet Rousselle a trois maisons,
Cadet Rousselle a trois maisons
Qui n'ont ni poutres ni chevrons,
Qui n'ont ni poutres ni chevrons;
C'est pour loger les hirondelles,
Que direz-vous de Cadet Rousselle?
Ah! Ah! Ah! mais vraiment,
Cadet Rousselle est bon enfant.

Cadet Rousselle a trois habits,
Cadet Rousselle a trois habits,
Deux jaunes, l'autre en papier gris,
Deux jaunes, l'autre en papier gris;
Il met celui-là quand il gèle,
Ou quand il pleut, ou quand il grèle.
Ah! Ah! Ah! mais vraiment,
Cadet Rousselle est bon enfant.

VOCABULAIRE

l'enfant, ***the child***
cadet, ***the youngest boy***
a, ***has***
je, ***I***
ai, ***have***
j'ai, ***I have***
il, ***he***
elle, ***she***
un, ***one***
deux, ***two***
trois, ***three***
maisons, ***houses***
qui, ***that, who, which***
ont, ***have***

ne pas, *not*
ne, ni, ni, *neither, nor*
ils, *they*, masc.
elles, *they*, fem.
la poutre, *the beam*
le chevron, *the rafter*
ce, *it*
est, *is*
pour loger, *to lodge, to house*
les hirondelles, *the swallows*
mais vraiment, *but truly, but indeed*
bon enfant, *good, kind-hearted simple-hearted*
l'habit, *the coat*
jaune, *yellow*
gris, *grey*
l'autre, *the other*
le papier, *the paper*
met, *puts on*
celui-là, *that one*
quand, *when*
ou, *or*
il gèle, *it freezes*
il pleut, *it rains*
il grèle, *it hails*

FRÈRE JACQUES

CHANSON, EN CANON, À DEUX VOIX

Frère Jacques, frère Jacques,
Dormez-vous, dormez-vous?
Sonnez les matines, sonnez les matines,
Din, din, don, din, din, don.

VOCABULAIRE

frère Jacques, *Brother James*
dormir, *to sleep*
je dors, *I sleep*
tu dors, *thou sleepest*
il dort, *he sleeps*
nous dormons, *we sleep*
vous dormez, *you sleep*
dormez-vous? *do you sleep? are you sleeping?*
sonner, *to ring; to ring the bell*
je sonne, *I ring*
les matines, *morning bells*
la cloche, *the bell*
comment, *how*
faire, *to do, make*
je fais, *I do, make*
il fait, *he does, makes*
nous faisons, *we do, make*
vous faites, *you do, make*
ils font, *they do, make*
comment fait la cloche? *how does the bell go?*
il doit, *he must*

APRIL SONG

Words and melody by children of the seventh school year, University Elementary School

In the Spring-time of the year A - pril comes with
all its cheer, Bring - ing back the birds and flow - ers,
Gen - tle winds and sud - den show-ers. Buds are ope - ning

on the trees, In the pleas-ant balm - y breeze;
Snow and ice are gone a-way, Spring is fair - er ev - 'ry day.

EDITORIAL NOTES

The Age of Rapid Progress

We are accustomed to congratulate ourselves upon living in an age of rapid advancement. We gloat over the marvelous achievements in commerce, in invention, and in social organization that have been effected in the last half-century. Our current opinion is that public-school education should share in this general laudation for its swift increase in extent and efficiency. And when we touch upon philanthropy or social progress, "What is there that has not been done?" we cry!

Dissemination of Social Reforms

Truly we may marvel at the mushroom growth of ideas and at their spread throughout society—overnight, as one might say. Tip-toe we stand, expectant, ready to catch "the latest" in philanthropy, or in social endeavor, as the news flies from lecture-room to workshop, to office, and to the tea-table. We import and export not merely commodities, but ideas, schemes, reforms. Do we not learn how to make and mend municipal machinery from Australia, and how to equip an army from Japan? We snatch from our dailies intelligence of progress in war and in industry; the vogue in pleasure-making and theology; the newest in athletics and esoteric research, culled from Oxford to the South Sea Islands. We gasp and ejaculate over the measureless rush of social forces, and at the changes which have occurred "even in my time."

Is the Movement toward Freedom and Democracy?

And yet we might stop to ask ourselves whether the real movement toward freedom, and democracy, and opportunity for all is keeping the tempo of the *presto* march to which our pulses are beating; or, if the vaunted triumphal procession is a whizzing biograph to be understood, as in reality a weary *largo*.

Initiated is Not Accomplished

To the enthusiast, "initiated" is apt to spell "achieved," and for the speed-intoxicated it its well to call a halt now and then and count the milestones to come, as well as those already passed. If we should sum up the organizations in one great city that are instruments for social betterment,

we could make quite a showing on the side of improvement. On the other hand, there would still stand a long roll on the debit side, which list is to be cleared away only by social education.

The Growth of a Quarter Century

Here is a partial list of social machines that have sprung into activity during the last quarter-century. Every one touches the public school at some point:

School Children's Aid Society.
Day Nurseries.
Free Kindergarten Associations.
Social Settlements.
Religious Education Association.
Social Education Association.
Municipal Voters' League.
Consumers' League.
Neighborhood Improvement Associations.
Parents' and Teachers' Clubs.
Visiting Nurse Association.
Vacation School and Playground Committee.
Home-finding Association.
Public School Art Sciety.
Municipal Lodging-House Association.
Society for the Protection of Women and Children.
The Juvenile Court.
The Parental School.
The School Fellowship Committee.

Everyone of the above represents the effort of society either to adjust itself to the gaps that society itself has created, or to patch up failures that it has made. Each one is significant of the fact that social evolution is going on as rapidly as is commercial expansion; creating new necessities as each decade goes by.

Does the School Keep Pace?

And where does the school come in? Is it also dynamic? Is it accommodating its aim and its régime to the social milieu of which it is a part? Certainly the school reflects to some extent the richness and movement of the age; but does it not falter a lap at least behind as it struggles on to maintain its position as nursery of civic virtues,

and training ground for *any* opportunity which may open for *any* child today, or tomorrow?

Out of the list given above, four lines of work have sprung up to fill out essentials which the school has not been able to provide wholly out of public funds. These are the Free Kindergartens, the Public School Art Society, the Vacation School Committee, and the School Fellowship Committee. The Parental School and the Juvenile Court stand as indications of the failure of school and home together to do the work required of them.

The School Needs the Help of Social Agencies

If there is one thing that the present age should have taught us it is that the school cannot stand alone and apart. Especially is this true of the city school. We are finding that it takes all of the above-named institutions to accomplish the work which the school stands for, and we must press into its service a visiting nurse, a board of health department, a truant officer, and a Friendly Visitor before the school can get a chance to do its own work.

A Typical Case

Here is a condition which is repeated over and over again in every city: The district is congested. The people are of the small wage-earning class, always liable to a cessation of income through accident or industrial depression. Two to five rooms, often dark, comprise the average home. There are no yards worthy the name. The playground is the street. Most of the parents and many of the children are foreign-born. The school has no yard large enough for games, nor has the building any playroom. It has neither room nor equipment for wood-work, cooking, or any of the industrial arts. Its walls are dull and bare. The numbers of children are so compacted that they must march from room to street in military file. No social interchange, no space, no adequate provision for play, athletics, or dancing. Yet these are the schools in which our future citizens are to be gaining the active experience which is to make them effective citizens, with honorable standards of living, and aspirations toward the best things of life!

But better things are being planned. The latest building plans of schools for Chicago have been drawn with a view to providing for just these conditions of effective citizenship. Indeed,

these plans of the architect of the Chicago Board of Education are such as would make one weep for the unlucky ones born too soon to spend their school days in them, in the happy time to come when public moneys will flow in to build and equip them. Color, space, shop equipment, ground floor, assembly hall, gymnasium, and plenty of playground are features of these last new plans.

Another Type of Building

Little by little a sense of the ineffectiveness of isolated scholasticism, in the face of our social problems, has forced itself upon teachers and social workers. We owe to women's clubs much of the influence which has sprung up outside school walls to bridge over the gap between the school with its traditional aims and methods, and the pressing needs of the children of the people. Well it is for society that woman's sympathetic insight has run ahead of public legislation to give demonstrations of what art, and play, manual occupation, field science, and excursions can do for education in its elementary steps.

The Old Order and the New

This has been the history of the movements for kindergartens, for manual training, vacation schools, and for playgrounds: by pushing and pulling, by force of argument and appeal, by direct begging, by bazaars, and by subscriptions, support has been guaranteed until the worth of these things has been so fully demonstrated that the public school has been moved to incorporate them to some extent; but rarely have means been found to adopt them in a full and complete sense. For example, there are not funds enough to put kindergartens in all the schools, manual training in all the grades, or vacation schools wherever they are needed in most of our cities.

From Private to Public Support

As yet we can only say that the activities which guard the health, secure regularity, and call out a full and free use of intellectual and social power in school life are but in their initial stages. The school of the future is yet to be evolved—as the school building is on the eve of realization.

The City School Yet to be Evolved

This new school is to be represented on the side of educa-

tional organization by the demand and supply of teachers who are professional in training and in outlook. It is to hold at its center the idea of activity as expressed in investigation, in creative occupation, and in group life. It is to treat children, not in mass, but as social units which will cohere in comparatively small groups from their own co-operative energy. It is to rely upon the larger mass-meeting for building up that *esprit de corps* which it will be still a duty of the school to supply.

Central Ideal is Activity

On the side of control, there will be for many years to come an increasing need in crowded city districts of agencies for finding out home conditions, for relieving slight illnesses by the visiting nurses, for protecting the mass against contagious diseases, for keeping watch over minor delinquents by the probation officers or school visitor; and yet —how much of truancy and delinquency can be eradicated by making the school, so far as work goes, as desirable, as—well let us say Parental School? The report of an investigation of truancy in eight public schools made by compulsory education officers, visiting nurses, and a Hull House worker, and published last autumn, makes most interesting reading, and it shows the plain necessity of supplementing a child-labor law by a system of school pensions to take the place of the earnings of the child-laborer when others dependent upon him are absolutely reduced to want.

Highly Specialized Control Necessary

Here, then, is another avenue of effort. Paternalism! you will probably cry! To this the answer may be quoted: "You can never pauperize a little child by helping him to an education." The report referred to shows also that in poor districts the school nurse is an imperative necessity. School luncheons must supplement the insufficient home fare, if children from the poorest homes are to have vitality enough to take up the work offered in the schoolroom.

Paternalism Not to be Feared in Education

Yes, the school must be dynamic. It must take on as organic functions many phases of activity that once ranked as philanthropy. It must be an exponent of the highest social forces of the day.

B. P.

BOOK REVIEWS

Men of Old Greece. By JENNIE HALL. Boston: Little, Brown & Company. Cloth. Pp. 263; 12 full-page plates and 43 illustrations in the text. Listing price, $0.60.

In this book the men of old Greece live again, and the young readers live with them. The stories are told charmingly, with a beauty and simplicity well suited to a review of the "lovely land" and the "beautiful Greeks."

The "men" are Leonidas, Themistocles, Phidias, and Socrates. The first story tells of "Leonidas," from his first day away from home, when he becomes a member of a boy's club to learn to live for Sparta, until the day he gives to her his life at Thermopylae. The movement is good throughout, and the interest well sustained. The story of "Themistocles" is the story of Athens, with her statesmen, her heroes, and her people meeting the Persians. And as the Athenian was more graceful, more artistic, than the Spartan so is the second story more beautiful than the first. "Phidias and the Parthenon" is a chapter breathing the spirit of civic beauty, which makes the reader long for the beautiful Athens of Phidias. Pericles says to Phidias: "These pupils of yours will go back to their cities and fill them with beauty." The children who read this will wish to make the most of the possibilities of beauty in their city. The story of "Socrates," in its lovely simplicity, brings the book to a close. One does not think of the story of the philosopher as one for children, perhaps; but, in reading this presentation of it, he knows it to be as happily chosen as that of any of the old heroes.

The book is full of pictures of the *daily life* of the Greeks. The reader *sees* the boys at home, at school, in the games, at the mess; he *hears* the men talk in the forum, and *sees* Phidias at work on the Acropolis. Socrates' father goes out from his low-plastered house, whose door half fills the narrow street, and invites his neighbor to the nameday feast of his baby son; and Socrates grows to boyhood and manhood—all before the reader's eyes.

Miss Hall has not told stories *about* the Greeks, but has made the Greeks *live again* for the children, and in this her book is really valuable.

The full-page plates are beautiful and the text illustrations are numerous. The binding is attractive.

The book is a delight to children from eight to eleven years of age, and older children enjoy it. It may well be given a place in our school and home libraries for boys and girls.

ANNAS HIGGINS